

HUMAN RELATIONS DEVELOPMENT

a manual for educators

second edition



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ALLYN and BACON, Inc.
Boston London Sydney

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470 Atlantic Avenue, Boston, Massachusetts 02210.

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LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CATALOGING IN PUBLICATION DATA
Main entry under title:

Human relations development.

Includes bibliographies and index.

1. Personnel service in education. 2. Interpersonal relations. I. Gazda, George Michael, 1931-
LB1027.5.H82 1977 371.4'6 76-40480
ISBN 0-205-05566-4
ISBN 0-205-05558-3 pbk.

PREFACE

We have prepared this manual and the accompanying *Instructor's Guide* to help train educators and prospective educators in the development of human relations skills.

We use the term *human relations development/training* broadly to include skill development in personal and interpersonal relationships. By *skill development* we mean developing expertise in listening and communicating in order to make problem solving easier for those seeking assistance. We also contend that expertise in listening/perceiving and communicating/responding is a potent means of preventing misunderstanding. Therefore, expertise in listening and communicating is essential both in preventing problems and in developing effective strategies or procedures for problem resolution. Throughout the manual we use *helping* and *facilitating* interchangeably. We also use *helpee* very broadly to mean, at times, someone who is actually seeking help and at other times someone with whom we are simply interacting.

By *educators* we are referring primarily to teachers, administrators, teacher aides, special education personnel, and student personnel services specialists such as counselors, school psychologists, school social workers, and the like. The target population is elementary and secondary educators, but with slight modifications in certain exercises, the manual can be used with college and university educators and others engaged in educational endeavors. The manual was developed for use in both preservice and inservice education.

Procedures presented in the manual have been developed over several years with preservice and inservice teachers, administrators, and educational specialists. The manual has been modified and refined in its present form after use with several thousand undergraduate students enrolled in teacher education at The University of Georgia. In addition, input has been received from training several hundred inservice teachers, administrators, and other educational specialists.

The effectiveness of the model employed in this manual is developed in Chapter 1. Additional studies are abstracted in the *Instructor's Guide* and still further research is under way. The basic rationale for the model was developed

by Robert R. Carkhuff and his colleagues. Their research on the development and effectiveness of this model is unequaled by any other human relations procedures employed today. As a result, we feel confident that our adaptations of what has become internationally known as the "Carkhuff Model" are theoretically and empirically sound.

This second edition of *Human Relations Development: A Manual for Educators* incorporates a number of changes from the first edition. Decisions on revision of first edition material and addition of new chapters and sections were made, based on several types of feedback: formal reviewers, students' reactions, instructors' responses, and the authors' experiences with the first edition.

The revisions and additions in the second edition include:

1. an updated review of the literature in Chapter 1,
2. a chapter providing a rationale for implementing action strategies,
3. a chapter on attending skills,
4. a chapter on nonverbal behaviors in helping,
5. a chapter on helpee statement types,
6. a chapter on combining empathy and respect in responding,
7. many new stimulus situations including several extended interactions,
8. a revision of rating scales, and
9. sections on communication in employment relationships, responding with action, responding with information, responding to inappropriate communication, dealing with anger, and accepting compliments.

The *Instructor's Guide* to accompany this manual has also been revised. Especially relevant in the *Guide* is a modular outline for a twenty-hour training program that can easily be expanded to forty or fifty hours. The chapter, "Human Relations Training in a Group Setting," is now included in the *Guide* rather than the *Manual* since it is more relevant to trainers than trainees. Additional research abstracts are also included in the *Guide* for the second edition.

The model itself can only be an implement for human relations skill development. Inevitably, the personnel who function as trainers hold the key to the success or failure of this or any other training model. We wish, therefore, to underscore the importance of selecting healthy, high-functioning persons as trainers or educators. We recommend, further, that all potential trainers be trained in the model employed in the manual before they attempt to train others.

We do not pretend that all of the learning or skill development in human relations is contained in the exercises found in this manual and its accompanying guide. The manual and guide are *aids* for the trainer. Trainers should develop audio-visual material of their own to supplement these exercises. We have used audiotapes and videotapes effectively in training, and we recommend their frequent use. We particularly recommend the film/video series, *The Heart of*

Teaching, by the Agency for Instructional Television, Box A, Bloomington, Indiana. This manual has been coordinated with The Heart of Teaching programs.

We wish to acknowledge the many individuals who have contributed to the development of this manual and its accompanying guide. First, without the pioneering and tireless efforts of Robert Carkhuff, the basic model would not have been developed. We thank Dr. Carkhuff for permitting us to adapt his model and scales to the educational setting. We wish to recognize the efforts of R. Eric Desselle who contributed to the first edition of this manual but could not participate in its revision. We are grateful to Mark Fawcett, a graduate student at the West Virginia College of Graduate Studies, for helping with the development of stimulus situations for the second edition. We also appreciate the willingness of Dean Joseph Williams and Associate Dean Alex Perrodin of the College of Education, The University of Georgia, to support a human relations training program for prospective teachers. And, finally, we wish to recognize Ina Ruth Scott and Barbara Gazda who typed the final copy of the manual.

G. M. GAZDA

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The Need for Human Relations Training in Teacher Education

1

"No limit can be set to the power of a teacher, but this is equally true in the other direction: No career can so nearly approach zero in its effect."

— Jacques Barzun

There's an often told story in Georgia about the best math teacher in the state. Year after year, this woman's students gained more on their math achievement test than any other students in the state, so she was considered the best math teacher in the state. A newspaper decided to write a story on this teacher. The journalist followed up some of her ex-students to find out how well they did once out of school. The journalist wanted to find out how many of them had majored in math in college, how many became great mathematicians, how many of them worked in the space program, and how many had made other contributions in math. The journalist found that *none* of the teacher's ex-students had majored in math in college; hence, none had become mathematicians.

Well, the story is very clear. This teacher had taught her students at least one other thing besides math concepts. She had taught them to dislike math or, at least, not to like it to the point of pursuing it further.

Are teachers "disseminators of information" or "facilitators of learning"? If teachers are "facilitators of learning," they must start where the student is *psychologically*. He or she *is* where his or her feelings are. Feelings are the energy source. When students feel negative about their school work, energy is absent or misdirected. Energy is present when teachers relate subject matter in ways which arouse positive feelings. Positive feelings are most likely to occur when students feel good about themselves. This manual places special emphasis on helping teachers understand and build on the feelings of students.

SELF-CONCEPTS

It is now generally accepted that the vast majority of human behaviors are learned, i.e., they develop as a consequence of persons interacting with their environment. By and large, we *learn* to be the kind of human beings we are. This learning comes about mainly through interacting with other human beings who themselves constitute a principal source of motivations, punishments, and rewards. The quantity and quality of these interpersonal relationships greatly influence each person's unique personality development. It was primarily through people that we grew into what we are today, and it is primarily through our relationships with people that we grow into what we will be tomorrow (Otto, 1970).

Left on their own, newborn children might not live for more than a few hours. In this, their first interpersonal relationship, they must totally depend on their parents or caretakers to survive. In this relationship, infants experience virtually complete oneness with parents, because they have little sense of self.

Numerous terms such as *self-concept*, *self-perception*, *self-image*, and *self-structure* have been employed to characterize the organization of beliefs that people hold toward themselves—what they perceive themselves to be. Rogers (1951) describes the evolution of the self as follows: "As a result of interaction with the environment, and particularly as a result of evaluational interaction with others, the structure of self is formed—an organized, fluid, but consistent conceptual pattern of perceptions of characteristics and relationships of the 'I' or the 'me' together with values attached to these concepts" (p. 498).

The way the important people in our lives treat us largely determines our self-perception. These persons help us learn who we are and what we are. The personal evaluations that they make of us become part of our self-structure. From them we learn whether we are capable or incapable, likable or unlikable, lovable or unlovable, valuable or worthless. How they regard us is generally how we come to regard ourselves. The self, then, is partly built of the reflected appraisals of persons important to us. Because these persons have significant effects on our personality development, they are sometimes referred to as *significant others*.

Attitudes, values, and concepts may accrue to the self not only through direct experience but may be taken over unconsciously from other persons. That is, these components of personality may be *introjected*, though the person may perceive them as being experienced directly.

"Once established, the self-concept thereafter provides a screen through which everything else is seen, heard, evaluated, and understood" (Combs et al. 1971, p. 43). This screen serves to perpetuate the self-concept in every aspect of human experience; there is an increased likelihood that our behavior will cause others to respond toward us in ways which validate and support our self-image. If our self-structure is generally positive, it engenders self-respect and confidence, while a generally negative self-image leads to feelings of inadequacy and a lack of confidence. The perception we form of ourselves largely determines

what we can do and how we react to life in general. "So the circular effect of the self-concept creates a kind of spiral in which 'the rich get richer and the poor get poorer'" (Combs et al. 1971, p. 46). Thereafter, once the self-concept is firmly established, it is difficult to change.

We have indicated that children come to know themselves largely through interacting with significant others. Children incorporate the attitudes of significant others toward them into their own personality structure; therefore, the attitudes of significant others become the children's own attitudes toward themselves.

The parents or caretakers are the first significant others in the lives of children. If children are fortunate, these persons basically think well of them. If they are unfortunate, they generally think ill of them. In the first case, children "buy a good bill of goods"; in the second case, they are "cheated." In either instance, they have little control over the initial attitudes they develop toward themselves, because children don't choose their parents.

The state of marriage was instituted, in part, to fix responsibility for rearing children. Once children begin to attend school, however, this responsibility is shared with the teacher. And, as Hamachek (1971) observes, "Teachers are quickly established as 'significant' persons in the lives of most students" (p. 194). Children are generally not given the opportunity of choosing their teacher and, once again, they may be either fortunate or unfortunate.

It would seem desirable that teachers try to create a situation in which all students believe that they are fortunate to be taught by the teachers assigned to teach them and look forward to being with their teachers. Students who are eager to attend class are more ready to learn, to grow, and to develop their potentialities fully. A primary purpose of systematic human relations training is to facilitate a healthy teacher-student relationship.

All students deserve to have their total development facilitated by a truly competent human being—their teacher. But one cannot teach well that which one does not know well. Therefore, teachers themselves must grow and live fully if they are to help students learn to do likewise. The authors trust that their readers share this belief. Without acceptance and active participation by trainees, this program will not contribute effectively to the development of their capacities to guide the growth of their students constructively.

In the remaining sections of this chapter we shall sketch briefly how our industrial revolution affected our educational system by dehumanizing it. To humanize education is one of our goals, and we have therefore tried to illustrate through theory and research why this needs to be done and to give examples of research showing that it can and is being done.

THE ROOTS OF OUR PRESENT SYSTEM— INDUSTRIALIZED EDUCATION

As American society became more industrialized, a larger and larger educated labor force was required. The public schools were left with the task of educating

personnel to fill these positions. But the highly structured and specialized work world required standardized skills for standardized jobs. Conformity was therefore highly valued and praised, and little attention was paid to developing individual differences and uniqueness. Toffler (1970) points out that the whole design of the school was given an industrial flavor:

Yet the whole idea of assembling masses of students (raw material) to be processed by teachers (workers) in a centrally located school (factory) was a stroke of industrial genius The most criticized features of education today—the regimentation, lack of individualization, the rigid systems of seating, grouping, grading and marking, the authoritarian role of the teacher—are precisely those that made mass public education so effective an instrument of adaptation for its place and time. [p. 400]

Another notable characteristic of this period was the widespread use of harsh methods of discipline. Punishment was believed to be an effective motivator for good learning. Thus, teachers often exercised rigid control over the behavior of their students, forcing them into obedience and submission.

HUMANIZING THE SCHOOL

In considering where to concentrate our efforts at creating a healthier society, our educational institutions stand out as a fertile audience of millions. To a considerable extent, schools contribute to the total social welfare and play a significant part in shaping the direction of human existence.

As Weinstein (1972) writes, "Children have been called America's most precious natural resource" (p. 46). All children have within them a vast potential for growth and development, and it is the common obligation of the schools to nurture this. Our system of public education has been instituted with the hope that all the children of all the people will receive this nurturance.

Through practical and theoretical research we are constantly discovering new ways and means of providing students with the best possible education. Presently, considerable efforts are being made to humanize education. The prime momentum comes from humanistic psychology, though credit must be given to William James and John Dewey as early contributors to this movement.

When individuals use the humanistic approach, they try to understand people in terms of how they view themselves. Persons are seen as beings who: (1) achieve their uniquely human qualities through interpersonal contact, (2) are aware of themselves and their existence, and (3) are capable of making choices which guide their behavior. Such concepts as love, intimacy, creativity, warmth, and courage are given careful attention in humanistic psychology, as well as individuals, sense of self, personal values and their sense of themselves

as changing or "becoming." The positive potentialities of humans are emphasized, and they are approached from an optimistic frame of reference.

Humanistic psychology, called the "third force," (Maslow 1971) is generally viewed as being complementary to the first two forces in psychology, the psychoanalytic and the behaviorist. Each of these approaches uniquely contributes to an understanding of people and their functioning. However, no theoretical system as yet has managed to account fully for all the complexities of our species. Humanistic psychology evolved as an effort to transcend some of the limitations of the first two approaches while building upon their background.

In humanistic education, the goal is to help each student develop his or her positive potentialities and become the best human being each can—one who is fully integrated and fully functioning. The goal is not to mass-produce students so they all come out alike. The focus is on *maximum* development of each student, and not simply statistical normality.

EDUCATION, LEARNING, AND THE ROLE OF THE SCHOOL

The broad purpose of education, simply stated, is to facilitate the integration of a student's total personality in such a way as to maximize knowledge and skill development for productive living. The process of education is a process of change. "The person who has learned something acts in a different fashion from the person who has not learned this same thing: The first person has been 'educated'; the second person has not" (Grambs 1968, p. 1). When we educate students, we help them develop their own unique personalities by bringing their ideas and feelings into communication with others, breaking down the barriers that produce isolation in a world where, for their own mental health and physical well-being, they must learn to be a part of the human race (Rogers 1961).

Children are thinking, feeling, and physically responsive organisms. Therefore, educating them to be literate or scholarly is simply doing *part* of the job. Children's affective growth needs to be given at least as much consideration as their cognitive growth. From a holistic standpoint, no person can truly live effectively with other human beings if he or she lacks either the necessary cognitive or affective skills. Toffler (1970) writes in *Future Shock*, "For education the lesson is clear: Its prime objective must be to increase the individual's 'copeability'—the speed and economy with which he can adapt to continual change" (p. 403). In regard to human relations: "The world each of us personally inhabits grows steadily and rapidly larger. No man today has any choice but to be part of a greater and more diverse community. To forego the opportunity to educate our children faithfully and imaginatively for this larger world will be to fail them tragically and inexcusably" (Fischer 1968, p. 224).

School is one of the major instruments for socializing children in terms of our cultural values, traditions, attitudes, beliefs, knowledge, and skills. Yet while we are engaged in the process of deciding what children should be learning,

we sometimes fail to ask them about their learning needs. Rogers (1961), in his chapter, "Significant Learning: In Therapy and in Education," makes the following points: (1) Significant learning is facilitated in a therapeutic relationship, (2) educators interested in significant learning might gain some worthwhile ideas from therapy, and (3) significant learning occurs more readily in reference to situations perceived as problems, and it therefore seems advisable that we allow students to be in actual contact with the problems of **their existence**—problems they wish to resolve. Similarly, Hopkins (1941) advanced the idea that education is a continuous and lifelong process and should therefore also be concerned with life-coping skills and not just the classroom, books, or academic subjects isolated from the larger world.

Many of our most difficult problems in living are interpersonal in nature. Therefore, it seems reasonable to help students develop the skills necessary for establishing and maintaining effective interpersonal relationships. That is, we must help students become more socially competent, a concept which Barr, Davis, and Johnson (1953) believe is implicit in all statements of broad educational outcome.

THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER—FACILITATOR OF LEARNING

Clearly, our schools have a tremendously important role to perform in our culture. Within each school, the basic unit is the classroom, which is under the guidance and direction of a teacher. The individual teacher appears to be the single most vital factor in the system; few people would deny the importance of the influence a teacher may have on a student's behavior and personality development. Unfortunately, we have not always provided our teachers with the proper training in human relations that would help to ensure that the influence teachers have on a student's personality formation is indeed in the student's best interest. Considerable attention must be given to the relationship between teachers and students if our schools are going to help to develop fully functioning persons who together might constitute a healthier society.

In order to contribute to the total well-being of children, teachers must attend to as many of the students' basic needs as possible. Traditionally, as has been pointed out, the cognitive needs of students have been given noteworthy attention. However, a teacher might coerce a student to reach high levels of cognitive achievement to the detriment of the student's total development. This may be the case where teachers are primarily subject-centered or where they place the intellectual needs of the student above all others. This restricted view can be costly to the child. The child may be left with a one-sided personality; the child may become an academic success but an affective failure. "This is perhaps the greatest indictment of the contemporary Western intellectual: He lives almost completely within his own head and is proud of this disability. By his excessive emphasis on the rational and intellectual processes he becomes

progressively less human and more dehumanized, for life is feelings" (Otto 1970, p. 139).

Students learn all sorts of things in school, some of them useful and some useless. If a child learns to associate either the school or the teacher with strong feelings of anxiety, guilt, frustration, aggression, inadequacy, or worthlessness, then, plainly, that school or teacher is not effective.

It is important to note that the relationship between teacher and student is really one of interdependency, because neither can enact his/her role without the participation of the other. This point was well illustrated by Dewey, who suggested that a teacher could no more teach without a learner than a seller could sell without a buyer (Mouly 1960).

Axline (1947) observed that learning requires the participation of the student. This simple principle is easily overlooked. As Turberville (1965) advises, "In the last analysis the instructor cannot 'learn' the pupil anything" (p. 82). If this point of view is accepted, it follows logically that a teacher's primary role is to *facilitate* student learning of academic subject matter as well as other life-coping skills.

In conclusion, for a teacher to be effective in facilitating the total growth and development of students, at least three primary conditions need to be met: (1) The teacher must be adequately prepared in the subject or course to be taught, (2) the teacher must have some general knowledge of learning theory and the technical skills to present the material in a learnable fashion, and (3) the teacher must have a well-developed repertory of interpersonal skills through which to establish, maintain, and promote effective interpersonal relationships in the classroom. Some writers consider the third condition to be the most significant. Weigand (1971) writes, "How we interact, relate and transact with others, and the reciprocal impact of this phenomenon, forms the single most important aspect of our existence" (p. 247).

HUMAN RELATIONS AND DISCIPLINE

Good discipline in a classroom involves helping students learn to take responsibility for behaving in an acceptable manner, a manner which does not infringe upon the rights of other students or the teacher and, of course, a manner which increases the probability that learning will take place. Teachers who understand and care for students and who can communicate this to the students tend to have good relationships, and students who know that teachers care for them, tend to care about what teachers think about their behavior. Therefore, they tend to behave in more acceptable ways when they are with teachers who care about them. In other words, students tend to reflect back to the teacher the respect that they get from the teacher. Good human relations is one of the keys to having good discipline.

Harbach and Asbury (1976) found that negative behaviors decreased when teachers responded facilitatively to students with behavior problems. Eleven

high school and middle school teachers each identified the student he/she considered his/her most difficult problem. Each teacher specified the behavior he/she would like to change. Base-line data were collected for one week. During the next two weeks each teacher contacted the problem student at least once per day, initiated a facilitative conversation and communicated empathic understanding. Postdata collected the following week revealed that negative behaviors had decreased from 212 occasions during the base-line week to eighty-nine occasions during the posttest week.

Each of the eleven teachers in the above study had an interesting story to tell about his or her facilitative responses and the changing relationships. Several teachers reported that they found it extremely difficult to try to understand these problem students and to respond facilitatively to them. On the first day or two, problem students seemed to be skeptical of teachers behaving in this manner. All teachers reported that, following the experiment, they understood their students better and that the relationships improved. One female teacher was amazed that her attitude had become much more positive toward her student. She said, "I thought *his* attitude was supposed to change, not *mine*." After completing the project, a second female teacher immediately started an identical project with another student indicating that she couldn't wait to help another student with a problem. Her second treatment was also effective.

Much has been learned in the last twenty years about maintaining good classroom management or discipline through behavior modification methods. Of course, behavior modification methods which are most effective are those which are based on positive reinforcement rather than punishment. The problem for some teachers is finding ways to give positive reinforcement, but if a teacher has good relationships with students and a large repertoire of interpersonal skills, then the teacher has more potential for giving positive reinforcement. In fact, the good teacher becomes a personal reinforcer of behavior. A smile, a pat, a glance by the teacher are positive reinforcers to some students. Teachers who do not have potential for reinforcing students positively through their verbal and nonverbal behavior must resort to M&M's or authoritarian tactics and more punishment-oriented methods in order to maintain control. One of the most important objectives of this manual is to help future teachers and inservice teachers become more effective reinforcers of positive behavior.

A GENERAL REVIEW OF RELATED RESEARCH LITERATURE

The highlights of a rather comprehensive review of teacher effectiveness and competency research are outlined below. The studies were chosen from among hundreds that were carefully examined. Particular attention was given to studies which have demonstrated the importance of good human relations for effective teaching. Many of the studies reported were well designed and skillfully